THE INDOCTRINATION DIVISION: A MODEL FOR EFFECTIVE INTEGRATION OF FIRST-TERM ENLISTED PERSONNEL INTO THE AIRCRAFT CARRIER ORGANIZATION

David Paul Mozgala

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THESIS

THE INDOCTRINATION DIVISION: A MODEL FOR EFFECTIVE INTEGRATION OF FIRST-TERM ENLISTED PERSONNEL INTO THE AIRCRAFT CARRIER ORGANIZATION

by

David Paul Mozgala

June 1976

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Theories of adolescence, problems of modern youth, and attitudes of first-term sailors are examined in order to determine the needs of the client population, and explore ways of meeting these needs.

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by

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Lieutenant, United States Navy
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I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A. GENERAL

The aircraft carrier (CV), like any large organization, experiences an influx of new personnel throughout its period of existence. Unique to the Navy (when compared to most civilian organizations) are the youthfulness of its personnel and their high rate of turnover due to transfers and discharges. This constant inflow of people requires an effective orientation program so that newly reporting personnel can be smoothly assimilated into the organization.

Establishment of such a program aboard an aircraft carrier requires that the indoctrinators possess a thorough understanding of the shipboard organization and of those personnel who are reporting aboard for the first time. Present guidelines are extremely general and vague as to how newly reporting personnel shall be indoctrinated.

B. THE IMPACT ON MISSION EFFECTIVENESS

The effective operation of a carrier organization is dependent upon the efficient performance of each of its crewmen. The task of training and motivating new men to become useful, competent and effective sailors is a matter of considerable importance.

A thorough indoctrination program for newly-reporting, first-term personnel assists in alleviating their situational anxieties and in making them viable members of the

organization. This is accomplished by placing them, after observation/evaluation, into a division best suited for both the needs of the individual and the organization.

1. Present Method of Indoctrinating Newly Reporting Personnel.

The Indoctrination Division procedures are delineated in OPNAVINST 3120.32, Standard Organization and Regulations of the U.S. Navy, and are provided in Appendix A. This instruction states that there shall be an I-division officer appointed by the executive officer for the initial indoctrination and training of personnel in pay grades E-1 through E-4. Additionally, the instruction states that the indoctrination shall include:

> 1. Review and verification of service, pay and health records jointly by the individual and the I-division officer. 2. Briefings on command's mission, organization, regulations and current operating schedule. 3. Counseling on matters pertaining to advancement and educational opportunities. 4. Counseling concerning opportunity for advancement and education available. [OPNAV, p. 6-38]

The I-division officer functions under the direction of the executive officer and the ship's administrative assistant.

OPNAVINST 3120.32 further states that when there are too few indoctrinees the I-division may be discontinued. The Chief Master-at-Arms (CMAA) is tasked with assisting in the division supervision and coordination; each of the ship's departments and special offices is responsible for the preparation of a lecture/tour outline and must provide an individual, when called upon, to present the lecture.

Furthermore, the instruction states that personnel reporting aboard will continue to berth with their regularly assigned divisions, but will be temporarily assigned to the I-division in accordance with the executive officer's directives. Additionally, the ship's division officers are responsible to ensure that indoctrinees attend assigned meetings and to review the service record of each new man immediately upon his checking in.

The departmental lecturers are enjoined to acquaint I-division personnel with the task of each rating assigned within their respective departments and the relationship of that department to the overall operation of the unit. Instructors also should endeavor to stress the role of each man in contributing to the overall effectiveness, and to "make each man realize his own importance." [OPNAV, p. 6-39]

2. Weaknesses/Inadequacies of the Present System.

As previously stated, the guidance supplied by OPNAVINST 3120.32 is extremely broad and creates the potential for ineffective implementation. Basically, the I-division organization consists solely of an I-division officer who coordinates a series of lectures and tours for new personnel reporting aboard and who reviews the records of all indoctrinees. This is accomplished after the individual has already been assigned to a division for duty.

The immediate placement of new men into divisions for work without providing a period of orientation to assess their individual backgrounds, capabilities and desires can be detrimental to both the individual and the organization. The

new men are normally assigned to a permanent division on the basis of a cursory service record examination upon their reporting aboard. Thus, these placement decisions are made without the benefit of much important and available data, especially when deployed, since fairly large numbers of men report aboard at the same time. No consideration is given at that time to attempt to consider the goals of the individual as well as those of the organization. Inappropriate and inflexible placement decisions can cause disillusionment in these young sailors, along with anger, disciplinary problems and possible loss of men from the Navy.

Since the I-division is activated only when a sufficient number of new men justifies the action, the possibility exists that some personnel may be aboard for days or even weeks before receiving any kind of indoctrination. The permanent division officer is responsible only for orientation within his own division; consequently, it behooves a command to rapidly indoctrinate newly reporting personnel so that they would at least not be hinderances should a shipboard emergency occur soon after their arrival aboard.

The fact that new men are placed into a division immediately and may not receive the formal indoctrination right away can lead to impersonal treatment of these young men. The regular division personnel effectively "own" the new man, but really cannot engage him in meaningful tasks until he has completed his I-division orientation. This can lead to impersonal and unstandardized treatment of new personnel since the division personnel are not required to

indoctrinate. Being left alone upon reporting aboard can compound one's already anxious state, increase loneliness and create a negative attitude toward the command.

Finally, the new men may not have an opportunity to establish a comfortable rapport with a division officer and petty officer upon reporting aboard. These relationships can yield a wealth of information about the young man through both formal interviews and informal dialogue.

C. SCOPE OF THE THESIS

This thesis is limited to the examination of first-term enlisted personnel reporting aboard an aircraft carrier from boot camp or Class A school. The indoctrination model proposed is designed to meet the specific needs of these personnel.

A further limitation is that only personnel assigned to the ship, that is, "ship's company" personnel, will be required to undergo the proposed indoctrination program. Personnel assigned to the squadrons of the air wing aboard the CV are indoctrinated by separate squadron indoctrination procedures.

Finally, the thesis is concerned only with male sailors because women, as of this writing, are not permitted aboard combatant vessels for duty.

D. APPLICATION

The indoctrination model is considered to be adaptable to any large U.S. Navy vessel.

II. BACKGROUND

A. DESCRIPTION OF THE ATTACK AIRCRAFT CARRIER (CVA/CV)

An aircraft carrier is an awesome sight, not only at sea, but also when tied up alongside a pier, where it dominates the wharf area by its sheer bulk. With an overall length slightly greater than 1000 feet (longer than three football fields) and a beam of approximately 80 feet, the ship's hull encases an organization similar in size and complexity to that of a small city.

Between 4,500 and 5,000 men maintain and sustain the ship as a complex weapons system. Approximately half of the total personnel complement comprise the ship's air wing which normally operates approximately 100 aircraft of various types. The air wing consists of several squadrons which embark several months prior to an overseas deployment, and then disembark to shore-based naval air stations for training upon return to the United States.

The other half of the total complement are permanently assigned to the ship for its operation and maintenance, e.g. engineering, supply, weapons, and administrative functions. Under the commanding and executive officers are functional department heads, division officers and chief petty officers who make up the structure of the formal organization.

This shipboard environment is a complex one, not only from the standpoint of its numerous levels of organizational

hierarchy, but also because of its confusing physical layout. The more than fifteen decks in the ship, each with its seeming maze of gray passageways and compartments impose a formidable challenge to the neophyte crewman. Simply attempting to find one's way from one part of the ship to another can be a frustrating experience, and normally it is months before the average crewman can confidently find his way throughout the ship using the most direct paths.

It is this foreign and complex environment into which the new men reporting aboard are thrust. To those who have had prior sea-going experience, adapting to the ship is a relatively simple matter; on the other hand, to a young sailor fresh out of boot camp, the initial shipboard exposure can represent an intimidating and confusing experience.

B. YOUNG SAILORS AS ADOLESCENTS

First-term enlisted personnel reporting aboard the ship for duty fall within the seventeen to twenty-one year age group. Each is a recent graduate of either the Navy Recruit Training Command (Boot Camp) or a Class "A" school, which is the first step toward a specialized rating (e.g. electrician, ordnanceman, sonarman, etc.). Regardless of their education or backgrounds, the commonality they share is their youth and their stage in human development, i.e., adolescence.

1. Male Adolescents in General.

The period of adolescence is defined in many ways, but basically it is that period of an individual's life between the time he achieves sexual maturity and the time he

"attains emotional and social maturity and has acquired the requisite experience, ability and willingness to play consistently an adult role in his culture." [Horrocks, p. 19] Consequently, in our culture the adolescent period lasts very late into the second decade of life, sometimes into the third, and, for a very few, it never ends.

This period of one's life is an emotionally charged one, for although the individual is physically an adult and may strive to attain emotional maturity, our culture relegates him to a limbo status. The adolescent is placed in an undefined role as neither a child nor an adult. This cultural imposition of putting the adolescent "on ice" until society has a position for him creates frustration, confusion and rebellion in our youth.

2. The Military Adolescent.

The adolescents who enter the military are representative of our society's adolescents in general. Because adolescence is an institution in our culture, the military youth are a sample of America's adolescents in general. One point must be made, however. The sample of military youth will be slightly skewed due to the fact the military is now comprised of self-selecting volunteers.

In spite of this fact, adolescence is a cultural phenomenon common to all youth in our society. Those young men with whom we deal in the military can be expected to have the same basic fears, ideals and emotional problems as their civilian counterparts.

C. EXPECTATIONS OF NEWLY REPORTING FIRST-TERM PERSONNEL

Having completed his first phase of Navy training and having received orders to an aircraft carrier, the young sailor may begin fantasizing about going to sea and visiting foreign countries. Each of these two experiences would be new to the vast majority of American youth, and thoughts of these forthcoming adventures can invoke strong feelings of anticipation and excitement.

These feelings would be intensified if the young man were flown overseas to meet a deployed ship, especially if he were flown aboard the ship while it steamed at sea. An arrested landing aboard an aircraft carrier is a traumatic way to enter this new organizational life.

D. PERCEPTIONS OF NEWLY REPORTING PERSONNEL

Regardless of how an individual gets aboard, the first sight of the ship, wherever it might be, creates stirrings of conflicting feelings of challenge, anticipation and fear of the unknown. It is not unusual to be awed by the size of the vessel and then totally confused by the compartmentation system, routine and shipboard vocabulary (e.g. the announcement "sponson eight is open" denotes that trash may be brought to a particular part of the ship for disposal). The result is a type of "cultural shock", for the shipboard physical plant, routine and confinement represent a totally foreign environment to the new men reporting aboard.

With most young men having a "machismo" attitude, "being cool" by not showing or expressing anxiety is a must [Jersild, p. 178]. They rapidly develop a respect for those seasoned

sailors who have been aboard long enough to know how to maneuver from one compartment to another. This creates a potential danger, for the impressionable and vulnerable youth could easily fall prey to the shipboard element who are considered to be the least desirable.

The first contacts made by the new men, consequently, are very important, since initial shipboard experiences have a significant influence on later perceptions of the ship and its organization. Youth, being more impressionable and spontaneous than older men, can be given a positive viewpoint of their new environment provided the initial shipboard experiences manage to meet their needs while integrating them with the goals of the organization.

In the next chapter we will examine the institution of the adolescent in detail, focusing on young Navy enlisted men in particular.

III. APPROACH

A. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will examine three areas of study which pertain to the first-term enlisted man. The first section provides an overview of adolescence as a stage of human development in our society; the second section examines adolescent youth and some of their present-day problems; and the third looks at the attitudes of first-term sailors.

1. Adolescence in American Society

As previously stated in Chapter II, adolescence is that stage of development which occurs between the time when young people attain sexual maturity and when they have acquired those attributes deemed by society to be consistent with the role of an adult. In the physical sense, adolescence is a universality common to all cultures; the duration of adolescence varies from culture to culture, but, in all cases, the child experiences a prepubertal growth spurt, attains sexual maturity, and ultimately achieves adult status. But psychological adolescence, unlike physical adolescence, appears only in certain cultures. From that standpoint, adolescence is, in our culture, a state of mind.

> The essential fact that emerges from a comparison of our culture with others is that psychological adolescence is not a necessary corollary of physical adolescence, but a cultural phenomenon produced by a delay in the assumption of adult roles. [Church, p. 439]

The first serious theories of adolescence were summarized and supported in 1904 by psychologist G. Stanley Hall who grouped the stages of development (e.g. infancy, childhood, youth, puberty and adolescence) and hypothesized that each stage was a critical period of life. He saw adolescence as a time of great emotional upset and maladjustment, and found sufficient evidence among the American adolescents he studied to confirm his hypothesis of stress. There is no evidence to contradict his research that adolescence in America is a period of stress, but Hall generalized his findings to all adolescents based on results from samples of Western countries only.

In the 1920's Margaret Mead, a cultural anthropologist, discovered that adolescents in Samoa experienced no period of storm and stress, but simply underwent biological changes en route to adulthood. Mead contrasted the Samoan and American cultures and concluded that the differences in the adolescent's reactions to this stage of development were: 1) the Samoan culture did not involve decision-making conflicts; 2) the Samoans made no real distinction between adults and children in everyday life; 3) attitudes toward death, birth and sex in Samoa were casual, and no issues were created about them; and 4) the traditional family unit was lacking - one belonged to the entire society and freely moved among its members. These four aspects of the Samoan culture do not exist in America and, in contrast, ours is a complex, industrialized society of rapid pace and technological change.

> Obviously, if the cultural differences Mead listed are basic to storm and stress in adolescence, then advanced cultures must recognize that stress is

> inherent in their kind of culture and they must find ways to teach their young to cope with the stresses that arise, not inevitably out of the child's nature as Hall assumed, but out of the nature of the culture itself. [Horrocks, p. 12]

One of the problems faced by all cultures is that of the status to be afforded the adolescent individual - for sexual maturity does not automatically bring on stability, a sense of responsibility or adult self-identification. To what extent an individual in this state is recognized by adults varies considerably from culture to culture. In the more primitive societies, a public ceremony or initiation rite signals the transformation of one's status from child to adult within the culture. In more modern cultures the line of demarcation does not exist and leaves the adolescent insecure about his position in society. Without the widespread recognition of his maturity, people's behavior toward him is inconsistent; he is treated as an adult only occasionally, and, therefore, has no firm definition of his role.

As societies become more industrialized and complex, the transition period from child to adult lengthens. The former symbols of adulthood - financial independence from parents and completion of school - are being postponed to later ages. In our society there is no single event which signals acceptance into adulthood; consequently, adolescence has become solidly institutionalized as the period during which an individual is no longer a child but is not yet an adult. The adult world gives the adolescent mixed signals about his status, thus reinforcing his own ambiguity about himself. [Church, p. 440]

Adolescence in Western culture is a period when the individual attempts to come to terms with himself and his environment. The most difficult period in resolving self-concept formulation problems appears to be between the ages of 14 and 18, but after 18 the difficulty gradually decreases until stability of self-concept and adjustment is reached (for most people in the twenties). [Horrocks, p. 125] Rosenberg [p. 4] believes that there are four reasons for the heightened awareness of self-image during this period of development. First, late adolescence is a time of major decision in terms of occupational choice, marriage, and the individual's own perception of his capabilities. Second, adolescence is a period of unusual change: a boy grows several inches and/or gains twenty pounds in a matter of months, sexual drives achieve an intensity previously unimaginable in the period of latency, and new interests, attitudes and values come to the fore. Third, late adolescence is a period of unusual status ambiguity, for society has no clear set of expectations for the adolescent. As a result, the adolescent is a bundle of potential largely lacking in fulfillment.

At this point, a brief discussion of the bases of behavior of adolescents is appropriate. It is essential to realize, however, that an adolescent is a human being before he is an adolescent and that a great deal of his behavior is "human behavior," not "adolescent behavior." Without digressing into the subject too deeply, we will assume the premise that every manifestation of human behavior is goal directed. [Horrocks, p. 88]

During adolescence, peer approval and freedom from adult authority are important goals. As a result, a great deal of adolescent behavior is directed toward attaining these goals.

Life, however, does not permit us to attain all of the goals we seek. When progress toward a goal is slowed or blocked by an impediment, the individual experiences frustration. To the adolescent, an environmental block could be a lack of money, a rule imposed by parents, an obstacle of time or distance, or the disapproval of peers. Internal blocks could be caused by personal defects (real or imagined) which prevent the adolescent from attaining desired goals. Examples of internal blocks could be a lack of necessary coordination or physical conditioning to participate in games, poor eyesight or other physical defects. If any of these problems should persist for a period of time, personality problems may occur which result in insecurity or feelings of inferiority. For the adolescent there are two other sources of blocking. One results from his immaturity and lack of experience which prevent him from coping adequately with his environment, and the other is a problem of opposing values. An example of the latter is the young boy who dates a girl but must suffer through the catcalls and jeers of his friends when he appears in public with her.

The thwarting of goals can lead to tension. As frustration from the blocking occurs, one may react with aggression, defense or withdrawal.

Another basic tenet of human behavior is an individual's tendency to react in a certain way when confronted with a stimulus. This characteristic, called habit, is retained and even increases in strength and potential when satisfaction follows its occurrence. Lack of satisfaction leads to decreased strength and eventual extinction of the habit.

Certain habits become customs if they occur in typical members of a cultural category of people. The typical adolescent possesses numerous habits which are unique to him as an individual and, simultaneously, several customs which he shares with other members of his culture and subculture. These habits and customs interact dynamically and influence each other both positively and negatively.

One of the more difficult problems of adolescence in Western culture occurs when certain childhood habits, promoted by adults and deemed to create security, have to be replaced by habits more appropriate to older children and adults. This replacement is often forced by pressure from adults, peer-groups and the media. If the early habits have been an integral part of the child's self-concept, then replacement may create severe adjustment and acceptance problems.

A considerable amount of research has been performed to determine the needs of adolescents and the extent of their need satisfaction. A need, according to Murray, is an inner force or drive which leads to action. Most theorists tend to classify needs as physiological (e.g. air, water, food, sex, urination, harm avoidance, etc.), and psychogenic. This second class of needs has created disagreement among researchers, for

attempting to list this type of need leads to differences in individual interpretation of the need.

Among the studies which have attempted to examine adolescent needs is the research of Abrams into the fantasy life of college students. He reported that the most frequent fantasy was associated with achievement, and that the Blacks in the study displayed more interest in professional and financial success than whites. Abrams concluded that when needs cannot be gratified, indirect methods of drive reduction are attempted; also, daydreaming is one of the techniques used to achieve partial need satisfaction.

In 1951 Lucas performed a factor analysis of responses to a needs questionnaire using a random sample of 200 cases from 725 children in the seventh through twelfth grades. This yielded eight basic need factors: 1) achievement; 2) affection; 3) conformity; 4) dependence; 5) heterosexual attraction; 6) independence; 7) mastery-dominance; and 8) recognition. He also reported a general factor, acceptance-approval, which he claimed to be the primary and ubiquitous goal of the adolescent's behavior. According to Lucas, this goal dominated all other goal behaviors and the eight other categories were subordinate.

Many other classification schemes have been formulated, but the most commonly identified adolescent needs appear to be conformity, affection and achievement. Suffice it to say, however, that behavior is comprised of a number of dimensions in any behaving organism, and a person's behavior at any given

time is governed by the extent to which each dimension is operative at that moment.

The primary interpersonal relationship which the adolescent first experiences is involvement with his family. Due to the rapid rate of social change, our society is fraught with parent-adolescent conflict. Within a fast-changing social order the time interval between generations becomes historically significant, thus causing a hiatus between parents and their adolescent children. [Davis, p. 70] As a result, parents become "old fashioned" and youth respond with rebellion, turning the closely confined family circle into an emotion-charged arena.

Prior to the adolescent years, the child normally manages to get along well with his elders, but with pre-adolescence a few skirmishes occur as the child attempts to establish an uncertain independence. With adolescence, family ties continue to be fairly strong, but the areas of estrangement enlarge. [Wattenberg, p. 144] The pressures of external forces in contemporary society combined with the adolescent's need for independence have caused an increasing social distance between parents and their adolescent offspring.

Given that our youth are now a divergent subculture within our society [Rosen, p. 20] and considering the rapid rate of social change in our society, the family setting has taken on a new perspective. To begin with, increased leisure time and commercialized recreation are "making us a nation of spectators as much as participants, individuals rather than families." [Gunter, p. 201] The differences in interests

between youth and their parents (e.g. the parents enjoy Mantovani concerts while the kids dig pop festivals) suggest that the transfer of the leisure function from family to outside activities occurs when the youths reach adolescence. The onset of competition between parents and their children's peers for influence on the children after the age of ten or eleven is now well accepted. The tempo of parental competition with peers of their children intensifies greatly with youth's progress through adolescence. [Denney, 1950]

During the adolescent years, young people are exposed to a variety of life styles which provide alternatives from which the youth can choose. The choices presented to them offer present and future means of dealing with their lives and often they are in direct violation of parental norms: "rejection of materialism, exploration of drugs, dress - as symbols of revolt and rejection, sex - open rather than concealed, and activist politics of a style the parents never experienced." [Gunter, p. 203] The dynamics of the youthful culture as opposed to the relatively more conservative parental life-style are factors which contribute greatly to conflict within the family.

Another factor which influences the family role is the nuclear family influence of today which has replaced the extended family of the past. Our mobile society has caused children to move away from parents upon maturation and achievement of independence. This has led to a much smaller family unit which excludes grandparents, aunts and uncles from the child-rearing process. It also leaves a void in the area of

communication when the youth desires to discuss a problem with someone other than his parents. In the past, an understanding aunt or uncle would turn a sympathetic ear, but today's youth turns to people outside his family for help, thus widening the parent-adolescent gap. [Keniston, p. 276]

In spite of the frictions inherent between adolescents and their parents, the parent is still an influence on teenagers, for the parents do provide love, security and the model for child-rearing. Most parents (aside from extremes) show interest and exercise helpful supervision in raising their children. Their examples are a factor in influencing the offspring to develop into the types of adults which we now experience in society.

Perhaps the primary influence on adolescents and their behavior is the peer group. As the adolescent shuttles back and forth between two subcultures, that of his parents and that of his peers, the latter gains influence with time and age. The greater the wall between adolescents and adults, the more influential the peer culture becomes and the more the adolescent has to turn to it for support and identity. The dependence on group approval is so severe that it has been called the "popularity neurosis." Only in late adolescence do young people start to define abstract standards of virtue against which to measure their own behavior.

The adolescent's need for popularity and group approval derives in large part from parental lessons: it is important to get along with people, to be well liked, to be well-adjusted. During the adolescent stage, the youth cannot be satisfied

with what he thinks about himself, so he relies on his peers for approval. On the other hand, parents see almost every adolescent other than their own to be a potentially bad influence. Although parents encourage their offspring to be popular, they may not be able to define with whom.

The adolescent's dependence on group belongness and his submissive conformity to group ways to prove that he belongs, can result in serious problems. Street gangs often require new members to commit a crime and girls may be forced into promiscuity. To say that young people should have sufficient fortitude to resist group pressures is invalid, for failure to conform can produce feelings of guilt and inadequacy as severe as going against one's own conscience. Consequently, the group can place the adolescent in an approach-avoidance situation such that either option leads to a painful consequence.

The adolescent's dependence upon and conformity to the opinions and behavior of the peer group result from the fact that young people are essentially conservative with their own age-mates, however much they appear to depart from adult standards of conduct, dress, or acceptance of values. [Horrocks, p. 247] To the adolescent the fact that "other kids are doing it" is an overpowering reason for a given action, but parents easily alienate their adolescents by condemning the actions of their children. Preventing an adolescent from following the ways of age-mates creates a perceived "embarrassing situation" which usually leads to overt defiance in the home.

One of the most important aspects in examining the relative effects of peer society is the fact that individual differences involve not only the characteristics of the individual, but also the past experiences he brings to the peer group. Conformity to peer groups has been proven to be a function of age: in childhood the peer rules are not influencial, but in high school they have reached a peak, and after adolescence to early adulthood conformity gradually decreases to a level which varies among individual adults.

Friendship among adolescents is very important for it fulfills many needs, such as security, belonging, and even domination. What an individual obtains from a friendship varies with each individual, but personal acceptability as a friend results from an individual's estimation of another's appropriateness to a given context. The basic ingredients of friendship appear to be proximity of homes, ability to meet the environment's demands, physical prowess and satisfaction of psychological and social needs. Once formed, friendships tend to be maintained because of common interests, equality of status or because the friendship supplies a specific need.

The adolescent is very frank with his friends and usually is exceedingly critical of them, far more than he will be as an adult. He constantly appraises and evaluates his friends based on an often unrealistic standard. The adolescent can freely tell his friends exactly how he feels about them - sometimes in the form of unsolicited advice, innuendo and ridicule. Most adults, however, are not so open in their relationships with their peers.

In dealing with others, especially in new surroundings with strangers, the adolescent both knowingly and unknowingly conceals his feelings of anger, anxiety or fear. The influences that lead an adolescent to alter, suppress or repress his expression of emotion reside both within him and in the culture. There are two influences from within which are significant. First, changes that occur in the natural course of development lead to many changes in emotional response. As one grows older from childhood, he is better able to view things in a larger perspective and thus take in stride many things that once produced anger or fear. Another internal condition of youthful expression of feelings is conflict. Various impulses and motives clash and lead to a different emotional outcome than would emerge if just a single motive were at work. Conflict prevails, for example, when an adolescent's desire to exert himself is blocked by fear.

Powerful forces in our culture also lead adolescents to repress their emotions. Throughout childhood the adolescent is often reminded not to show emotion, as when young boys are told not to cry or show fear. Peers admonished them not to be "fraidy cats." As a consequence, they learn to conceal their fear. It is a strange paradox that in adolescence (as in adulthood) it often takes more courage to show fear than to conceal it. [Jersild, p. 180]

As a result, the adolescent overlays his emotions with a layer of pretense and distortion. In dealing with adolescents it becomes imperative, then, not to take an exhibited

emotion at face value, but to look beneath the surface for the latent true feelings.

Since adolescence commences with the attainment of sexual maturity, this physiological trait itself creates problems for the pubescent youth. Adolescence is the time of peak sexual capacity, yet the restrictions our culture imposes on the sexual activity of the young and unmarried cause severe problems. However, society's attempt to impose complete sexual abstinence upon adolescents appears to be failing. Premarital intercourse is fairly common among the adolescent population and is more tolerated by society in general than it was generations ago. The result has been an increase in venereal disease and pregnancies out of wedlock despite availability of birth control methods unavailable 15-20 years ago.

One of the more important keys to understanding an adolescent is to be aware of his interests. Since interests are directly dependent upon the environment and cultural factors for both their inception and sustenance, they rely on successful experience for their nurturing. It is training for skills to achieve that success which is significantly important in broadening an individual's interest horizon.

Interests are motivating factors to activity, but an individual's activities are not always an index of his real interests. Because it is often impossible to do what one would like to do, substitute activities are often accepted. Interests require opportunities to be implemented if they are to result in any activity.

In summary, the adolescent is driven by basic human goals and need-oriented behavior. He is, however, relegated to a unique position in our culture - neither adult nor child. Characteristically, the adolescent rejects parental norms and dictates, but conforms strongly to the influences of peers. The reader must realize that this section has covered adolescence in very general terms, and has not, for instance, considered subcultures within our culture. The intent is to provide a basic understanding of the make-up of all adolescents; but in dealing with adolescents, one must avoid generalizing and treat each as a unique individual.

2. Youth of the Present Generation

a. Vietnam War Era

The Vietnam War years have been characterized as a time of youthful rebellion, dissent and protest. The campus riots, demonstrations, and anti-military sentiment reflected a mass movement of youthful activism previously unknown in American history.

In researching the available theories for this decade of unrest, one recurring aspect which has already been broached in this paper is the fact that our culture is particularly sensitive to social change. Keniston, in his paper on social change [p. 168], states that life for Americans, until relatively recently, had been reasonably certain to a simple degree in that a man could plan on his children experiencing the same technology, social institutions and outlooks on life that he had. But in today's society (in this writer's opinion) one can be relatively certain that the life situation of our

descendants will be drastically and unpredictably different than our own. Keniston also listed four characteristics of change in his country: 1) the past grows increasingly distant from the present because of the accelerating rate of technology innovation; 2) the future grows more remote and uncertain due to the unknown direction of social change; 3) the present assumes a new significance as the one time in the environment is relevant, knowable and immediate; and 4) the relations between the generations are weakened as the rate of social innovation increases.

For the primary actors of the 1960's (adolescents), attempting to make a commitment to the future was nearly an impossible task. Although this group had outlined the social definitions of childhood, they had not fully evolved into viable adults. "Reared by elders who were formed in a previous version of the society, and anticipating a life in a still different society, they must somehow choose between competing versions of past and future." [Keniston, "Social Change," p. 169] Consequently, it is our youth subculture which must chiefly cope with the strains of social change. The "youth problem" [Milson, p. 40] combined with an era of extremely rapid technological change and an unpopular war triggered the rebellious search for meaning and purpose by the adolescents of the 60's.

During the same period the hippie movement and increased publicity of drug usage throughout the country appeared as youth reacted to the fast pace of life and rapid technological change. Alienated youth accentuated the "generation gap"

at this time and behaved in ways that often surprised, embarrassed or affronted adults and entire communities. On the other hand, however, Milson observes that youthful alienation is not necessarily all bad, for there are times when youth looks at society with fresh eyes and asks the devastating question "Why?" "Through its youth a nation may have its energies renewed and be saved from complacency, lethargy and snobbery." [Milson, p. 41]

In summary, the Vietnam War era poignantly illustrated the fact that our youth constitute a subculture in our society which is extremely susceptible to technological and social change. Having been placed in an undefined adolescent role, many youth have reacted to life in a "Future Shock" type of way by rebelling, escaping through drugs, or "dropping out" of society. And no wonder this occurs for the "social sanction for the postponement of 'adult' commitments goes with an increasing expectation that post-tenn-age youth may continue experimentation, search, and self-exploration for a number of years before taking 'the final plunge' into adulthood." [Keniston, 1968, p. 265]

b. Current Adolescent Problems

The end of the Vietnam War, an economic recession and an end to college unrest and the hippie movement occurred in the early 1970's. An all-volunteer armed force became reality, thus eliminating draft evasion and most anti-military sentiment. American youth have settled down dealing with their everyday problems of life instead of rioting or being politically activistic.

Although the drug culture presently is experiencing significantly less publicity, drug abuse among America's youth is still a problem. Reports of teen-age deaths from overdoses combined with anti-drug abuse publicity have made most aspects of the drug scene to be common knowledge. Therefore, drug abuse among the young will not be belabored here. An examination of drug attitudes among young sailors will follow in the next section.

As time progresses, it is rapidly becoming clear that although drug abuse among the young is not abating, it is now rivaled in notoriety by an increasing teen-age use of alcohol. Appendix B cites the latest national figures on teen-age drinking.

Why adolescents drink (alcohol consumption has been increasing among pre-teens also) related to numerous problems in their lives. Although there are many who experiment or who simply "follow the crowd," the symptomatic drinkers usually have had law-accident or school problems. [Fillmore, p. 891] Frequent intoxication or even binge drinking among adolescents represents a means of dealing with real or perceived problems. Contributing to the problems are parents who do not feel as though they are a part of their children's lives. "Many parents are frustrated because the schools and media have assumed educational functions that in the past belonged almost exclusively to parents." [Horoshak, p. 69] As a result parents are unable to compete with the outside influences.

The influence of alcohol on teenage drivers has been the subject of numerous studies. Young men aged 16 to 25 are involved in a disproportionate number of highway accidents. In one sample survey, drinking-driving behavior rose rapidly with increasing age among teenagers; by age 20, over half of the men drank weekly and six out of ten had driven after drinking within the previous month. [McDole, p. 971] The percentages of young men in alcohol-involved crashes, however, were much lower - only five percent at age 20 reported drinking prior to any crash. The severity of the accident has been proven to be directly proportional to alcohol consumption (in youths age 20 six percent reported drinking prior to a noninjury accident, but five times that number had been drinking in fatal crashes).

One result of heavy teen-age drinking is the possibility that characteristics of teen-age drinking become predictions for middle age drinking habits. The twenty year follow-up study by Fillmore illustrates that some types of adolescent drinking behavior can be indicative of adult alcohol problems. Interestingly, "it might be hypothesized that psychological dependence on alcohol is an American drinking norm to a certain degree; i.e. people use alcohol to get them through a variety of stressful situations or use it actively as a mood modifier." [Fillmore, p. 903]

Frequent intoxication during late adolescence through early adulthood and often into middle age has existed as a fairly typical drinking pattern. But a loose form of binge drinking (infrequent but heavy drinking) probably

identifies young male problem drinkers. Binge drinking can be regarded as an early form of frequent intoxication. Drinking in conjunction with law-accident problems and to a lesser degree school problems can be characterized as being symptomatic of serious youthful drinking.

Drinking among our adolescents is very much tolerated as one of the "rites of youth," but it behooves managers of these people to be aware of what degree of drinking can be a serious problem. Education of our youth and concern by adults may assist in stemming the tide of teen-age alcoholism.

This section has examined some of the problems which impact on our current generation of youth. Next we will explore the area of youths in the military and their attitudes.

3. The First-Term Sailors

One unique aspect of the Navy is the fact that it is an organization comprised of young people. The twenty-year retirement and relative ease of entry and exit for non-career personnel provides for a dynamic flow of persons through the system. The sheer size of the Navy with its constant turnover of personnel means that new recruits must be trained continuously to maintain force levels established by Congress. There are approximately 560,000 enlisted personnel in the Navy with a turnover rate of about one in seven which results in a requirement for new recruits estimated at about 114,000 for FY 76. [Shalar, p. 48]

The all-volunteer service has proven to be effective in attracting youths, although present difficulties in obtaining civilian employment may be part of the services' success.

According to a May 3, 1976, "U.S. News & World Report" survey, the military has been meeting its quotas for new recruits, and today's young men and women are finding the military to be quite attractive. "For the high school dropout, the military offers an immediate paycheck, and a second chance to finish school. High school graduates see a tour in uniform as a way to get credits toward a college degree, or to learn a trade they can use in civilian life." ["Big Switch," p. 35] Even college graduates are joining as enlisted men due to difficulties in finding jobs.

The overall education level of non-prior service enlistments in all services has been increasing steadily. During the first half of Fiscal Year 1976, high school graduates comprised 79 percent of all enlistments compared to 66 percent for the same months of FY-75. People in the average to above-average mental groupings made up 96 percent of the all-service recruits compared with 92 percent the previous period. ["Recruiting Results. . .," p. 6]

The key to the organization and what it can become centers on the new recruit, his attitudes, training and motivation. Realizing that the typical recruit is normally between 17 and 23 years of age, single and a high school graduate, we can begin to get a picture of this group. Appendix C summarizes results of a background and demographic study on 6,795 recruits who entered the Navy in February 1970. [Katz, 1971, p. 6]

From the Katz study it becomes apparent that the recruits are in the adolescent category (median age 19.2) and

that just prior to enlisting the majority had been dependent upon parents or guardians. The stability in their lives is evidenced by most being from complete families (few divorced parents) and most had not moved very often in the past 10 years.

Although this 1970 study shows a great majority of the enlistees being white, recent programs to recruit minority groups have increased the percentage of black enlisted men in the Navy to 16.2 percent as of the end of 1974. ["Ratio...," p. 34] Equal opportunity programs have been instrumental in this dramatic increase.

Appendix D illustrates further findings by Katz on reasons why the above 6,795 recruits joined. The recruits were asked to indicate on a four level scale what effect each of the possible reasons had on their decision to join the Navy. The eleven reasons are listed in descending order based on the percentage of recruits who indicated the reason had a great deal to do with their enlistment decision. These results indicate that when men enlist they are more concerned with achieving intermediate goals (e.g. obtain technical training) rather than with making a long term commitment to the Navy as a career. "The fact that men are not attracted initially by the prospect of achieving some specific goals does not mean that they cannot be attracted to the Navy as a way of life if special efforts are made to enhance Navy life." [Katz, 1971, p. 11]

The first real Navy experience obtained by new enlistees is Recruit Training (Boot Camp). The three months of training are intended to indoctrinate the new man into military

life through physical training, marching, class work and obedience to orders. In a study by Katz and Schneider, 1200 enlistees were polled before and after boot camp to determine what effect Recruit Training might have on an enlistee's attitudes and perceptions. One of the results was that attainment perceptions (perceptions of the comparative opportunities for the attainment of the work and nonwork offered by the Navy and civilian life) in favor of the Navy decreased in all categories; the opportunity for satisfying needs in the areas of interpersonal relations, physical and mental well-being, and education and training, though still favoring the Navy, did so by a smaller margin after Boot Camp than before.

In several subcategories (Do kind of work I like best; Get farier treatment; Get to talk things over with those above you; and Have a good life in general) the numbers favoring the civilian environment exceeded those favoring the Navy, a reversal of the results obtained before boot camp. Despite these results, the number intending to reenlist increased from 10% to 13.7%, the number intending to get out fell from 35% to 27.5%, and the number undecided increased from 55% to 58.8%. An explanation for these attitude changes is as follows:

> . . . the attainment perceptions which were assessed at entry to recruit training may be a partial reflection of preference rather than being 'objective' perceptions of attainment opportunity in the Navy environment versus civilian life. . . On the other hand attainment perceptions assessed at the end of recruit training are more likely than entry perceptions, to reflect information about how individuals perceive and evaluate the environment on the basis of their experience in that environment. [Katz, 1973, p. 54]

Similar findings resulted from a study by Goldsampt to determine the attitudinal changes of Category IV recruits (previously not eligible for service because of failure to meet minimal mental ability standards) between entry and completion of Boot Camp. A cohort of 1,837 Category IV recruits from three Recruit Training Commands were administered the specially designed questionnaire. The study investigated their attitudinal changes in: (a) preference for the Navy (as opposed to civilian life) as a source for satisfying certain personal needs, (b) the importance attached to these needs, and (c) expectations of, and experiences with certain aspects of recruit training.

Job-related and interpersonally-related needs were judged to be the two most important need clusters both prior to and upon completion of Boot Camp. The greatest attitudinal shift which occurred during recruit training was in the importance of interpersonal relations (e.g. obtaining fair treatment, having the opportunity to discuss matters with those of higher rank, etc.). Upon entry 51.4% of the recruits favored interpersonal relations in the Navy, but this shifted downward to 40.7% at the end of training.

Certain groups of Category IV men shifted more than others in valuing the importance of particular needs. Men with educations of an eighth grade or less experienced the greatest increase in considering being assigned to work they liked best. Blacks shifted less than other racial groups in valuing fast promotions to more important jobs.

At the end of recruit training, rather than at the beginning, proportionally more Category IV men viewed the Navy as an organization providing: (1) long separations from home and family, (2) more chances than civilian life to work on important jobs, and (3) greater opportunities for fast promotions. Conversely, after completing training, proportionally fewer men saw the Navy as satisfactorily offering: (1) fair treatment, (2) good supervisors, (3) chances to discuss problems with those of higher rank or responsibility, (4) chances to work with good people, (5) good standards of conduct and appearance, and (6) opportunities to perform "a man's job" and the kinds of work liked best.

As a result of recruit training, therefore, certain deficiencies in Navy life became apparent to this sample of men. The Navy became less preferred than civilian life in satisfying interpersonal needs of these individuals - a fact relevant to understanding Category IV organizational adjustments to the Navy.

The first impressions obtained when one arrives at a command tend to be lasting. In a study examining the impressions of recruits in the Navy, recruits reported that their first contact with RTC Receiving was, without exception, something they would long remember. The initial contact between the service and recruits drew no favorable comments - all ranged from neutral to negative and reflected a rude awakening in the neophyte military men. Characteristic of the recruits' comments: "we just milled about," "didn't understand what I was supposed to do," "seemed like a waste of time," "treated

us like cattle," and "too much all at once." While these comments do not necessarily describe the Receiving Divisions at our recruit commands, they do reflect perceptions of the recruits. "In the main, the concensus was that these early experiences were a low point in recruit training." [Blumenfeld, p. 10]

Particularly pertinent to this thesis is a study by Katz and Schneider citing the attitude of recruits toward their orientation/instruction at Boot Camp. Although these activities were highly rated by a majority of the recruits, two shortcomings were noted. About half of the men had not been informed of various facilities (library, PX, etc.) available to recruits. About the same proportion believed they had not been provided with sufficient information on what it was like to serve in the fleet. [Katz, 1972, p. 7]

Wilcove performed a study on the need satisfaction of junior enlisted men and discovered that first enlistees felt Navy life infringed more than previously on their personal freedom. In general, however, the degree of personal freedom experienced is related to both the degree of overall satisfaction with Navy life and his reenlistment intentions. Wilcone suggests, from his findings, that supervisors should concentrate more on offering constructive suggestions rather than negative criticism to their junior enlisteds, for first-termers claimed a significant lack of respect from their supervisors. Leaders tended not to respect the opinions of first-term men and the supervisors were unwilling to rectify mistakes made in dealing with junior enlisted men.

Social receptivity proved to be a negative point. Wilcove recommends that junior enlisteds need more opportunity to talk to their superiors about personal problems. He further suggests that first enlistees be given more privileges. "While too many 'unearned privileges' may curtail ambition and incentive, not enough 'deserved' privileges may produce apathy." [Wilcove, p. vi]

The manager responsible for the assignment of new men aboard ship should also be aware of some trends throughout the Navy in black-white assignments and their ramifications. Recent racial unrest aboard ships-of-the-line has received considerable publicity and has focused attention on the minority group sailor. A 1975 study by Bruni, et al, investigates differences between black and white sailors in their perceptions of shipboard climate and attitudes toward conditions aboard deployed ships and in the Navy. This is a complex subject, for attempting to explain black-white differences in attitudes relates to the individual's frame of reference based on his subculture, experiences, perceptions, etc. The study involved male enlisted men serving aboard 20 ships (from CVA's to DD's) operating in the Atlantic and Pacific.

Division assignment played an important part in the study for the extent to which blacks or other non-whites were systematically assigned caused blacks to experience a different organizational situation than whites. Appendix E is a cross-tabulation showing the percent of each division type consisting of each racial group. Although this table indicates that blacks were proportionally represented in a majority of

different divisions, exceptions were deck (11% Black), supply (9% Black), and sophisticated weapons division (less than 1% Black). This gives some indications that blacks are not evenly distributed in all division assignments. The skewed distribution for the other non-white minorities probably reflected the presence of many Philippine-origin sailors in the supply department.

On the basis of the popular media and numerous studies one would expect certain differences between the black and white sailor (e.g. expect the blacks to be more dissatisfied based on the fact that they are assigned less satisfying jobs, are treated differently by superiors, and bring to the ship a different set of abilities, needs and expectations). Bruni did find, in comparing blacks and whites, that the black sailor is more likely to be assigned the more routine, less-skilled jobs, and is less likely to be assigned highly technical jobs than a white sailor in the same division. The implied picture of racial discrimination by the Navy in job assignment is tempered by the fact that blacks get lower scores on written tests than whites (this subject will not be examined) and these are considered to indicate a sailor's aptitude for advanced or specialized training. The data appears to show that fewer blacks qualify for the more technological positions.

The study being discussed looked only at blacks and whites in the same divisions, the assumption being that both groups would face similar organizational conditions. The findings led to relatively few differences when blacks and whites in similar shipboard situations were compared. Both

groups in the same situation tended to have similar perceptions of the climate in which they worked. There were no differences in terms of the more intrinsic areas of satisfaction such as:

- esteem and ego needs
- autonomy
- self-actualization
- opportunities for promotion
- training received for the present job
- security
- social needs
- amount of respect and fair treatment from superiors

The black sailor did tend to score higher on measures of extrinsic satisfaction such as:

- Pay
- Rules and regulations regarding military appearance
- Opportunity to get a better job in the Navy

Although the study did not address prejudice, it appears that significant prejudice is not indicated. In fact, the results tend to support the argument that "workgroup closeness serves to moderate the impact of prejudice-related stress." [Bruni, p. 33]

Feelings of dissatisfaction were basically the same for both groups, but the dissatisfaction was most pronounced for the young sailors in lower paygrades assigned to comparatively routine jobs requiring relatively low levels of skill and training.

In other areas, a minority sailor was more likely to express a verbal commitment to reenlist than was his white

shipmate. No significant differences were found for either promotion rating or disciplinary action for the deployment period. The black sailor was more likely to have some form of accident or illness during the period; however, illness, for both races, was most likely for sailors in lower skill jobs (where blacks were somewhat more likely to be found).

In summary, the most striking finding of this study is the few differences between the black and white sailor when they are placed in the same situation. Those differences which were encountered tended to portray the black sailor as more satisfied, more involved, and more likely to make the Navy a career than the white sailor exposed to the same environment.

Drug usage aboard ship is strictly prohibited, yet the act goes on consistently in spite of drug education for all and threats of severe punishment. A survey of 6,830 Naval personnel by Gelfman and Gilbert revealed that drug use is reported to be most common among those 19 and younger in pay-grades E-3 and below, single, and not high school graduates. About 19 percent of those surveyed reported using drugs with some degree of frequency at the time of the survey and more than 40 percent of those classified as frequent drug users reported using drugs while on duty.

Most of the reported users believed that drugs either helped or had no effect on their job performance, but 50 percent of the respondents reported that they were unaware of their supervisor's attitude toward drugs and drug use. Apparently, a good percentage of first drug use occurs in the Navy

for, with the exception of heavy users, the majority reporting current drug and/or marijuana use also reported they had not used marijuana prior to service entry. Marijuana was the drug of initiation for the majority of the drug using sample.

These study results indicate that many potential recruits when asked do not reveal their drug involvement since 44 percent of those 19 and younger reported some drug usage. The implications of this survey further compound the manager's task in dealing with our adolescent sailors.

Finally, the shipboard drug organization has all of the characteristics of a television police scenario. The December, 1975, "U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings" cites an article by Captain R. E. Helms, Jr., who describes the drug structure aboard ship as usually consisting of a "boss entrepeneur," one or more transporters, several runners, and a cadre of users. He suggests that this organization may even pervade the officer's wardroom, and that drug abuse has existed in the Navy long enough for some pushers now to be senior petty officers. It does not take long for the drug organization to reach new personnel reporting aboard. The primary impetus is profit, and the larger the market the larger the potential margin in the boss's pocket. Although such an organization may not exist on every ship, the aircraft carrier with its 4000+ men is large enough to easily conceal this type of subversive organization.

This chapter has covered numerous areas which should be considered in the design of an indoctrination model for integrating first-term personnel into a large shipboard

organization. Although one must realize that each young sailor is an individual, we also have a need to realize the complex internal and external pressures which our society constantly places upon all youths. The next chapter describes a proposed method for an organization to indoctrinate the first-term enlisted youths reporting aboard an aircraft carrier for duty.

IV. THE INDOCTRINATION MODEL

The first-term enlisted man arriving aboard an aircraft carrier is the young adolescent who recently left the home of his parents and completed a traumatic boot camp introduction to the Navy. He faces a totally foreign and psychologically threatening shipboard environment. He observes, as he steps aboard, numerous peers who know where they are going and what they are doing. This heightens his already anxious and confused state, but the overriding adolescent need to look "cool" drives him to conceal his fear and embarrassment. He is vulnerable at this time, to any offer which will fulfill his heightened "belonging" and "acceptance" needs.

The organization, then, is challenged to meet these needs in a functional and wholesome manner. The Indoctrination Division is the vehicle for firmly meeting the needs of these young men and for effectively integrating them with the goals of the ship's organization.

Failure to recognize and act upon the immediate needs of these adolescents by the organization, risks the loss of their loyalty. Eventually the vacuum created by unfulfilled needs will lead these young sailors to those shipboard elements whose need-filling facade eventually causes unrest, confusion and bitterness.

The new sailor's first week aboard the ship can have far-reaching effects on his attitude, commitment and performance throughout his enlistment. The stakes are high and warrant

the investment of the resources required to establish and administer an effective I-division.

In order to achieve the goal of effectively integrating the young sailors into the organization, the primary elements required are command support and efficient organization. The Indoctrination Division envisioned should be formally organized under the Executive Department. Its division officer should preferably be a volunteer and a senior Lieutenant (junior grade), with at least one year aboard. These credentials would fit a young, personnel-motivated officer who has been aboard long enough to know the ship's organization thoroughly. His youth would be a definite asset in the indoctrinee's identification with him and would tend to open lines of communication with his men.

Although OPNAVINST 3120.32 gives the Chief Master-at-Arms (CMAA) responsibility for assisting the I-division officer, his duties in this area, as stated, consist only of supervision and coordination of the indoctrinees. This is in keeping with the function of the CMAA in policing and maintaining good order within the ship, but does not give him an active role in the indoctrination process.

An alternative to the CMAA is the use of petty officers (E-5 or above) who would not only assist in all phases of the indoctrination program, but also provide guidance to the new men and represent models to emulate. Sources of the enlisted assistants include the ship's human resources personnel, volunteers from throughout the ship, or quotas from departments as assigned by the Executive Officer.

The indoctrination process would commence with the arrival of new men and their being escorted to the personnel office for turn-in of service records. To allay the youth's immediate fears and to present a positive first-impression, the new men should be given a sincere welcome aboard greeting by the I-division officer or petty officer. An explanation of the indoctrination period would assist in allying initial apprehension among the men concerning their immediate future. The indoctrinees also should receive a public affairs packet with general information about the ship and air wing, basic regulations (smoking, safety, emergency procedures, etc.), and a sheet explaining the shipboard compartmentation system.

Finally, they would be escorted individually to an assigned berthing compartment by their peers presently in I-division. This would provide an initial peer contact who had been selected for his positive attitude and overall capabilities. The empathy of the escort for his new shipmate could establish a rapport which would further allay each of their anxieties. This simple act not only makes the new man feel welcome, but simultaneously allows the escort to improve his self-image as he exhibits his own newly-learned knowledge of the ship.

The berthing of indoctrinees could be handled in either of two ways. The first is the designation of a separate I-division berthing area. The second is the berthing of men in the divisions to which they will be assigned upon completion of indoctrination.

Both methods have costs and benefits. The use of an I-division berthing area gives the managers more control over

the new men and increases personal contact. On the other hand, this method keeps the indoctrinee somewhat secluded from the rest of the ship (thus slowing integration) and causes the man to have to move and resettle again within a week after reporting aboard. Also, the berthing space will experience wide variations in usage which cannot be tolerated if the ship has an overall bunk shortage.

The berthing of personnel in assigned divisions as they report aboard has the benefit of permitting the new man to meet his future work-mates initially on a non-working basis. This could ease the movement of the new man into a division. However, the I-division managers lose considerable control over their men and the positive impetus provided by the indoctrination could be undermined by a less-desirable element in the assigned berthing space.

Regardless of the method used, each indoctrinee should be assigned a sponsor, or "buddy," in the division to which he will be assigned. This peer-sponsor is a previously screened individual who displays a positive attitude toward assisting new men. He would also serve as the link between the indoctrinee and his future work environment.

One serious problem in indoctrinating new men occurs when they are immediately assigned to food-servicemen duties (mess cooking). Although OPNAVINST 3120.32 (p. 6-42) states that "personnel may be assigned food servicemen duties immediately upon reporting aboard and may simultaneously perform these duties while assigned to the I-division," it is strongly recommended that this procedure be avoided. Food service duty

is necessary, but placing a new man into an unpopular work environment which is comprised mainly of adolescents is counter-productive to the indoctrination process. (This author believes that the assignment of new men to mess cooking as their first duty - either during or after the indoctrination - may have an adverse effect on attitude, performance and, ultimately, retention).

The basic program for the indoctrinee should consist of three parts. The first is a series of 30 minute lectures given by officer/CPO representatives from each of the departments and services aboard. Appendix F gives a sample presentation schedule. Since these lectures will be given often, they can be videotaped for frequent replay. It is imperative that the lecture schedule be published and the lecturers contacted to ensure compliance. The parent division officer is responsible to ensure that indoctrinees attend all I-division functions.

The second phase of the indoctrination gives the new men an opportunity to work in the three main departments of the ship - air, engineering and deck. Regardless of whether the indoctrinee is a seaman, fireman or airman, he would perform in each of the three departments prior to "graduation." This requirement may be levied on rated 'A' school graduates reporting aboard as well as non-designated men. The airman or seaman, for instance, who spends several hours in engineering cleaning bilges or washing firesides quickly learns an appreciation for some of the less colorful chores performed by the "snipes."

This part of the program exposes the new man to several areas of the ship, gives him insight into the work environments of others aboard, and may lead him to discover a career field which interests him. It is believed that this portion of the indoctrination can be a valuable tool for assisting the young sailors to adapt with a potential for reducing later interdepartmental and/or inter-specialty resentments.

This cross-experience phase requires planning and coordination by the I-division officer. His personal communications with his peers in air, engineering and deck can make this a worthwhile experience for all concerned.

Finally, the third phase of the orientation is counseling by the I-division officer and petty officers. A review and discussion of each man's service record is conducted. During this time the I-division officer looks for possible service record discrepancies (and later works with the personnel officer to effect corrections), learns each man's background and job preferences, and completes a division officer's record card. Personal problems are referred to the appropriate resource. The "I" division officer also receives feedback from the indoctrinees so he can constantly revitalize his division by using suggestions and criticisms wisely to implement changes.

The I-division officer, having been aboard at least a year, can be an effective liaison between the new man and his parent division officer. A discussion between the two concerning the individual sailor sets the stage for a talk between the new man and his division officer using the already completed division officer's record as a guide.

Prior to transfer from I-division the new man must complete his familiarization worksheet (Appendix G). The worksheet completion, experience in the three departments, review of the service record, interview with parent division officer, and lecture series give the new men a thorough knowledge of the ship's organization, routine and mission.

The indoctrination period is estimated to last approximately four days for each new man. The lectures and working sessions are flexible and can be arranged to fit a changing ship's schedule and projected inputs of new men.

Throughout the indoctrination process the attitude expressed is that of interest in the new man. His high need level tends to make him self-centered, and giving him attention during this brief period can have far-reaching rewards, not only for the individual, but also for the shipboard organization and the Navy.

The young, adolescent sailors reporting aboard our ships today are the senior petty officers of the future. Because the first experiences encountered aboard ship can influence subsequent performance and retention, the investment in an effective Indoctrination division program aboard large combatants should not be underestimated.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The Indoctrination division aboard aircraft carriers is an investment which must be undertaken. The unique attitudes and needs of our adolescent, first-term sailors require that we adopt indoctrination methods which focus on the individual, his needs and his role in the organization.

An effective indoctrination could achieve the following potential benefits:

1) assist in relieving first-term sailors' feelings of confusion, fear, uncertainty and frustration more readily.
2) increase first-term sailors' commitment to the organization and improve functional behavior by establishing initial contacts with desirable role models.
3) increase functional behavior and satisfaction of the first-term sailor by making a "psychological contract" between the youth and an organization representative (the I-division officer) which explains what the organization expects of him and what it offers in return.
4) increase satisfaction and productivity of the adolescent sailor by helping him acquire a good self-image and sense of competency through explanations (learning) and successful performance of tasks, within his capability, followed by praise (reward).

5) improve the overall mission effectiveness of the organization by instilling indoctrinees with a positive attitude and the basic knowledge required for individual and vessel safety.

APPENDIX A

STANDARD ORGANIZATION AND REGULATIONS OF U.S. NAVY

OPNAVINST 3120.32

620.6 ORIENTATION BILL

620.6.1 PURPOSE

The purpose of this bill is to set forth the procedures to be followed for the indoctrination of newly reported enlisted personnel with the unit, its departmental functions, and its routine.

620.6.2 RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE BILL

The I-division officer, under the direction of the executive officer, is responsible for maintaining and implementing this bill.

620.6.3 INFORMATION

Personnel in pay grades E-1 through E-4 reporting aboard shall be assigned to the I-division for initial indoctrination and training. The mission of the I-division is twofold:

1. To orient newly reported personnel to their individual responsibilities, duties, and opportunities.

2. To acquaint newly reported personnel with departmental and special office facilities and functions and their relationship in the overall scheme of unit operations.

Indoctrination shall include:

1. Review and verification of service, pay, and health records jointly by the individual and the I-division officer.

2. Briefings on command's mission, organization, regulations, and current operating schedule.

3. Counseling on matters pertaining to advancement and educational opportunities.

4. Counseling concerning opportunity for advancement and education available.

Supervised indoctrination of newly reported personnel will assist in having a well-informed crew with a minimum

disruption of daily routine. Since the number of new personnel reporting aboard fluctuates at any given time, it may be necessary to discontinue I division when, periodically, there are too few indoctrinees. The executive officer shall determine when I-division training should be in effect.

620.6.4 RESPONSIBILITIES

a. THE I-DIVISION OFFICER will be appointed by the executive officer and shall be responsible for the administration of I-division and its coordination of training. He shall keep himself informed of all men who report aboard and activate I-division when a sufficient number of new personnel are available to justify the expenditure of time and effort on the part of personnel concerned. He will publish a list of personnel assigned to the I-division at least five working days prior to commencement of orientation lectures. Lecturers will be notified via the plan of the day five days in advance and personally by the I-division officer at least one day in advance of the commencement of the lectures.

b. DIVISION OFFICERS shall ensure that newly reported personnel assigned to their division are present at the appointed time and place for all I-division meetings and that their men have no other conflicting requirements. Division officers shall continue to be responsible for the indoctrination of new personnel in their specific duties within the division and department. They shall review the service record of each man newly assigned to the division immediately as personnel report.

c. CHIEF MASTER-AT-ARMS (CMAA) shall assist the I-division officer in supervising and coordinating indoctrination.

d. DEPARTMENTAL TRAINING OFFICERS AND PERSONNEL IN CHARGE OF SPECIAL OFFICES shall assign instructors, and the names of the instructors so assigned shall be submitted to the I-division officer. They shall prepare a lecture/tour outline that shall be submitted to the I-division officer for filing and future reference. This plan should list all training aids and should include a sketch of charts to be used. These plans will be reviewed on a continuing basis and updated as necessary.

620.6.5 INSTRUCTOR DUTIES

When notified by the cognizant departmental training officer or cognizant special office, instructors shall report to the I-division officer for a briefing on their duties as I-division instructors. Each instructor shall familiarize himself with the prepared lecture outline contained in the I-division training syllabus. He shall report to the CMAA 10 minutes prior to his period of instruction in accordance with the indoctrination schedule and shall be responsible for the indoctrination of and accounting for I-division personnel

during his period of instruction. If his period of instruction is terminated prior to the scheduled completion time, he shall ensure that I-division personnel are turned over to the MAA for the next scheduled event. Instructors shall make every effort to acquaint I-division personnel with the task of each rating assigned to his department and, insofar as practicable, spaces occupied and the relation of the department to the overall operation of the unit. Instructors shall assist the new men in every way feasible and answer all reasonable questions. Instructors should endeavor to stress the importance of each man to the overall effectiveness of his unit. Make each man realize his own importance.

APPENDIX B

THE LATEST NATIONAL STATISTICS ON TEEN-AGE DRINKING

Here are the results of a survey of 13,122 teenagers released by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism in April, 1975:

79.7% have had at least one alcoholic drink.
73.8% have had at least two or three drinks.
9.3% drink less than once a year.
17.3% drink about once a year.
14.9% drink once a month.
15.0% drink one or two days a week.
5.9% drink three or four days a week.
2.4% drink every day.

HIGHLIGHTS:

Perhaps the most startling result, according to the NIAAA, is that one child in every four aged 13 or younger drinks frequently enough and in large enough quantities to be classed as at least a moderate drinker.

Blacks are most likely to be abstainers and have the lowest percentage of moderate and heavy drinkers, while whites and American Indians have the lowest proportions of abstainers and the highest proportions of moderate and heavy drinkers.

Among those who had had a drink during the preceding year, 87.7% delcared their drinking to be no problem; 9.7% considered their drinking to be a mild problem; and 2.5% judged their drinking to be a "considerable" or "serious" problem.

Parental drinking behavior is strongly related to adolescent drinking. When at least one parent drinks regularly, an adolescent appears to be about twice as likely to be a moderate to heavy drinker than an adolescent with nondrinking parents.

The West has the highest number of heavy drinkers, and the South has the highest number of abstainers.

SOURCE: "RN" Magazine, Vol. 39, No. 3, March, 1976, p. 67.

APPENDIX C

BACKGROUND AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS 6,795 RECRUITS ENLISTED IN FEBRUARY 1970

Basic Data:

Median age	19.2 years
Never married	92%
Living with parents or relatives at time of enlistment	89%
Racial characteristics:	
White	92%
Black	4%
Mexican American	2%
American Indian	1%

From urban or rural areas:

From towns less than 25,000 population	33%
From towns 25,000-100,000 population	20%
From cities 100,000 or larger population	14%
From suburban areas	14%
From farm or ranch	8%
From rural areas other than farm and ranch	11%

Number of brothers and sisters (as a gauge of experiencing living with others):

An only child	5%
One sister or brother	18%
Two or three sisters or brothers	34%
Four or more sisters or brothers	36%

Parental stability:

Parents lived together while son was growing up	84%
Parents divorced	8%
Parents separated	4%

Family relocation experienced:

Not moved in 10 years or more	51%
Moved once or twice in 10 years	29%
Moved three or more times	19%

Education of enlistees:

High school graduate or passed GED	47%
Had some college	28%
Did not graduate from high school	24%

Majors in High School:

College preparatory course	43%
Vocational or trade training	20%
General education	22%

Work experience prior to Navy:

None	22%
One or two jobs	60%
More than two jobs	18%

SOURCE: PRINCE: Personnel Reactions to Incentives, Naval Conditions, and Experiences. "Demographic and Background Information, Expectations, Attitudes, Values & Motivations of New Recruits." Naval Personnel Research & Development Laboratory. SEP 71.

APPENDIX D

WHY MEN JOIN
(6,795 Recruits Enlisted in February 1970)

	REASONS	YES, A LOT (%)
1.	Wanting technical training	58
2.	Wanting travel	40
3.	Wanting post-service education benefits	39
4.	Wanting time to find out what to do with one's life	35
5.	Wanting to serve the country	32
6.	Not wanting to wait to be drafted	30
7.	Wanting a Navy career	27
8.	Wanting to be on one's own	25
9.	Believing the Navy would provide a better job than civilian life	16
10.	Wanting to live a military life	8
11.	Needing a job	7

SOURCE: PRINCE: Personnel Reactions to Incentives, Naval Conditions, and Experiences. "Demographic and Background Information, Expectations, Attitudes, Values & Motivations of New Recruits." Naval Personnel Research & Development Laboratory. SEP 71.

APPENDIX E

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF VARIOUS DIVISION TYPES FOR SAMPLE OF 3,139* SAILORS

	RACIAL CATEGORY						
	Black		Caucasian		Other Non-White		Total
DIVISION	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Deck	32	11	235	84	13	5	280
Guns	12	6	195	92	4	2	211
Sophisticated Weapons	5	1	370	98	3	1	378
Navigation/Admin.	11	5	195	92	7	3	213
Communication	10	5	206	94	2	1	218
Operations	11	3	308	94	7	2	326
Engineering (M & B)	30	5	575	93	15	2	620
Engineering (E & R)	12	3	362	93	17	4	391
Supply	34	9	250	68	84	23	368

*Only 3,005 persons are shown. The remaining men were assigned to specialized divisions, generally aboard carriers.

SOURCE: "Black-White Differences in Psychological Climate and Organizationally Related Attitudes Aboard Navy Vessels." Office of Naval Research, March, 1975.

APPENDIX F

INDOCTRINATION SCHEDULE

(DAY 1)

0745 - Muster

0800 - Welcome Aboard and Command Presentation (Commanding Officer/Executive Officer/Command Duty Officer)

0830 - Film "Ready on Arrival" (shows flight operations and explains the role of the aircraft carrier in implementing United States foreign policy)

0900 - Lecture by representative of the Operations Department

0930 - Lecture by representative of the Weapons Department

1000 - Lecture by representative of the Air Department

1030 - Lecture by the Master Chief Petty Officer of the Command

1100 - Lunch Break (escort assigned)

1230 - 1600 Tour of Ship (Complete check-in sheet while on tour)

(DAY 2)

0745 - Muster

0800 - Lecture by representative of the Medical/Dental Department

0830 - Lecture by representative of the Engineering Department

0900 - Lecture by representative of the Supply Department

0930 - Break

0945 - Lecture by representative of the Navigation Department

1015 - Lecture by representative of the Communications Department

1045 - Lecture by representative from Damage Control

1130 - Lunch Break

1245 - 1630 Work Experience in Air/Deck/Engineering Departments

(DAY 3)

0745 - Muster

0800 - Lecture by representative of the Aircraft Intermediate Maintenance Department

0830 - Lecture by representative from Special Services/Athletics

0900 - Lecture by Chaplains

0930 - Lecture by Drug Counselor

1000 - Break

1015 - Lecture by representative of the Safety Department

1100 - Lecture by the Chief Master-at-Arms

1130 - Lunch Break

1230 - 1630 Work Experience in Air/Deck/Engineering Departments

(DAY 4)

0745 - Muster

0800 - Lecture by Legal Officer

0830 - Lecture by representative of the Personnel Office

0900 - Lecture by representative of the Career Information Team

0930 - Break

0945 - Lecture by representative of the Education Services Office

1030 - Question/Answer Period by the I-division officer

1130 - Lunch Break

1230 - 1630 Work Experience in Air/Deck/Engineering Departments

(DAY 5)

0745 - Muster

0800 - Commence check-out from I-division and check-in to new division with assigned sponsor.

0930 - Indoctrination complete.

APPENDIX G

"I" DIVISION FAMILIARIZATION WORKSHEET

NAME_____ RATE_____

DATE REPORTED_____

1. Check-in completed_____. Tour completed_____.
2. My correct mailing address is:
 Your name, rate and SSAN
 _____ Division
 USS INDEPENDENCE (CV-62)
 FPO NEW YORK, N.Y. 09501

3. Camera registered_____.
4. My berthing compartment is in compartment_____, bunk_____.
5. My division office is in compartment_____, phone ext._____.
6. The Commanding Officer is_____.
7. The Executive Officer is_____.
8. My Department Head is_____.
9. My Division Officer is_____.
10. Sick call is held at _____ in compartment _____.
11. Chaplain _____ is the _____ Chaplain and services are held_____.
12. The Personnel Office is in compartment_____.
13. The Disbursing Office is in compartment_____.
 (Payday is held on the 15th and 30th of each month)
14. The Educational Services Office is in compartment_____.
15. I have toured the following spaces:

Forecastle_____	Signal Bridge____	Disbursing_____
CIC_____	Flight Deck_____	Medical_____
Nav.Bridge_____	Hangar Deck_____	Dental_____
Pri-Fly_____	Main Comm_____	ESO_____
SPBDS_____	Central Cont_____	Crew's Lounge_____
Personnel_____	Chap. Off._____	Library_____
Mach. Spaces___	Gym_____	Bowling Alley_____

16. I have been interviewed by my Division Officer on _____.

Certification of the completion of orientation must be signed by the below indicated individuals:

Sponsor _____ I Div Ofcr_____

Parent Div. Ofcr._____ Personnel Ofcr._____

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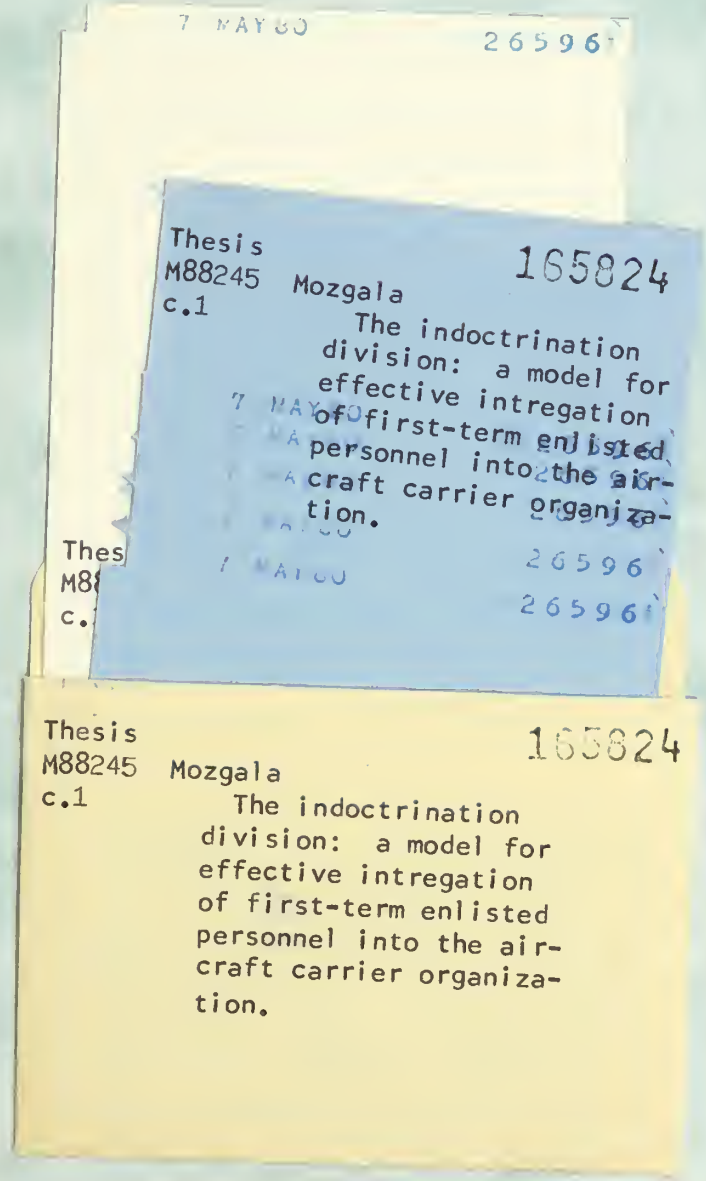
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